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The Correlation of English With Other Subjects from the Point of View of Psychology

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ALL TEACHING bristles with considered problems which frequently involve issues which are psychological in nature. Variations in organization of subject matter and in methods of teaching are testimony to the unsettled nature of many of these issues. A survey of textbooks in English reveals the manifold variations in presentation, both as regards organization and method, and this variation undoubtedly is reflected in similar manners in the classroom.

Correlation of English and Other Subjects

One of the primary issues concerns the correlation of English with other subjects. That this movement is by no means new is somewhat obscured by the white heat of interest in the present movement toward correlation. The famous report of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association of 1893 which had such a profound effect on secondary education in this country stated with regard to English:

It is a fundamental idea in this report that the study of every other subject should contribute to the pupil's training in English; and that the pupil's capacity to write English should be made available, and be developed in every other department.

This ideal, sincerely believed and preached in and out of season ever since, has had comparatively little effect on practice for the simple reason that the ideal without arrangements for putting the ideal into practice has been practically impotent.

The present movement toward correlation is more robust inasmuch as there is a willingness and disposition to experiment with new subject matter organizations.¹ Correlation of subjects is stimulating renewed interest for several reasons. In the first place the pressure of new materials for entrance into the school curriculum practically forces some sort of condensation of subjects. In the second place, it is realized that departmentalization has been pushed to absurd extremes. Based on a psychology of absorption, the traditional subject-matter organization quite overlooks the psychology of purpose and motive. In the third place, newer ideals in psychology emphasizing the integration and wholeness of learning give support to attempts to integrate subject matter around pupil experiences. In the fourth place, psy-

¹ See R. L. Lyman, *The Enrichment of the English Curriculum* (University of Chicago, Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 39, Jan., 1932) for a comprehensive survey of correlation experiments.

chology has preached the value of the interrelationship of experiences in learning and this point of view encourages experiments cutting across subject matter lines. Lastly, and by no means least, there is a definite social movement away from individualism toward collectivism which finds expression in the newer curriculum developments of correlation.

The attempt to make every class an English class was a failure. Every teacher has his specialty and interests and only in those unusual cases in which the history or science teacher also was interested in English was there any attempt at correlation. What is everyone's business becomes no one's business. The solution seemed to be either to train teachers to be specialists in all subjects in which there was supposed to be correlation, or to encourage the cooperation of teachers of different subjects to correlate their work. The former has not proved possible; so all attempts at correlation today aim at cooperation.

Barnes and others² have demonstrated that the first prerequisite to effective correlation of English with other subjects is the acceptance of this idea by both faculty and students. The inauguration of any plan of correlation must come from the principal of a school — the English department can only stimulate it. The effectiveness of the correlation depends entirely on the success of the administration in arousing interest and desire for the improvement of written and oral expressions on the part of both faculty and students, and planning an organization which permits the carrying out of the enthusiasm developed.

In any attempt at correlation it is inevitable that some one subject should dominate while the other subjects are contributory. In a correlation of ancient history, English, and art, for example, one of these subjects must, of necessity,

² Barnes, Walter—"English as a Cooperative Enterprise," *English Journal* (College Edition): 18, 752-761, Nov., 1929.

provide the backbone of the course. If the course is organized to follow through historical epochs, then English and art become merely contributory. If the course is developed primarily to bring out the principles of art, then history and English become merely incidental. If English expression becomes the core of the work, history and art are used as experience material.

In general it is clear that the subject which is to serve as the core is either the content subject or the subject which includes pupils' purposes most inclusively. One does not play football to give motivation to the arts of drop-kicking, punting, passing and blocking. Rather these skills are practiced so that they serve effectively in the game. The game, not the skill, is the thing. It is possible, of course, to take a course in creative writing or in poetry writing as an end in itself, with other courses, such as arts, correlated as accessory. The enjoyment of literature is another end in itself. But, in the main, English is a tool of expression in social activities, and the teaching of English should gladly accept its position as a servant in this capacity. In short, in most cases of correlation the core will be the content subject, with training in English as accessory to the other subject.

This point has been vividly emphasized by Eurich³ who suggests possible class organizations to make genuine correlation possible. Theoretically, then, English composition should not be a separate subject at the beginning of a school year, although periods should be reserved in a pupil's program for separate hours in English as these later become necessary. English teachers at the opening of the year would be assigned to other subjects—history, science, language, mathematics, hygiene, etc.—and would assist in the formulation of proj-

³ Eurich, A. C.—"Should Freshman Composition be Abolished," *English Journal* (College Edition), 21:211-219, March, 1932.

ects which would include, of course, oral presentation of reports and the preparation of written papers.

As the work develops and it appears that certain pupils are handicapped by bad habits or imperfectly developed skills, special English classes for them can be formed, to give drill and assistance on the special techniques in which they seem to be weak—spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, planning and outlining, grammatical correctness, etc. These classes would be recognized as temporary and contributory to the correlated classes in which the special need was first discovered.

Correlation as it is commonly practiced lacks order and system. In a correlation of English and art, lecturers may be called in to demonstrate principles from the various fields of art. On one day there may be a talk on rhythm in Greek art. This may be tied up the next period to rhythm in poetry. A week may be spent on an exposition of modern music. To the academically inclined such a hit or miss plan appears to invite only confusion and disorder in pupils' minds. Some may even protest that such a plan fails to have disciplinary potentialities. The argument that this is the natural way of learning is not convincing for what is natural may not be very efficient.

This danger of superficiality makes necessary careful planning of a correlated course around a core. Those responsible for the course must know in advance what outcomes they hope to develop from the work. All subjects in the correlated course should contribute in an orderly and coordinated fashion to the ends laid down. To be specific, the English teacher, whose primary responsibility in a correlated course in science and English is guidance in the preparation of reports, should have the opportunity to help pupils plan their reports from the English point of view. If tech-

nical faults develop, these should be attended to, not opportunistically, but systematically, in the special period set aside for English. In other words, the English teacher in a correlated course should have the same opportunity to develop the principles of grammar and rhetoric and their application just as thoroughly and systematically as in the separate course plan, but in the correlated course the setting would be different. Training in effective expression would serve the needs of expression in the various activities of school life, rather than be an end in itself.

Probably the most telling argument in favor of correlation is the advantage that comes from experiencing things together. There is no doubt that learning is rendered sterile by taking place in separate compartments. Power in thought develops in proportion to the number of relationships apprehended in a field. It is well known that the English learned in the English classroom fails to transfer (completely, at least) to the recitations and reports required in other school subjects. Correlation is a method of increasing the fertility of English instruction. Now that correlation experiments are well under way, the time is ripe to test the comparative achievements in English in classes taught under the separate subject plan and under the correlation plan.

Correlation of English Composition and Literature

A second issue in the organization of the English course concerns the relation of composition and literature—the expressive and receptive side of language. One might very well ask why it is necessary to go so far afield as history and science to find opportunities for expression when English literature itself provides such abundant opportunities.

From one point of view English composition and English literature are as distinct as any two subjects in the curric-

ulum, to be thought of as separate subjects and taught by different teachers if need be. Common belief holds that writing and speaking assist in the power to understand written and spoken language; and conversely the study of literature helps one's own expression. Borrowing an analogy from the study of foreign languages we know these separate abilities to be to a considerable degree independent, at least much more so than is commonly believed. One can learn to speak a foreign language without being able to read it; and countless pupils in school learn to read a foreign language without acquiring skill in speaking or understanding the spoken language. It is true that transfer takes place most readily from learning to speak a language because as one speaks he is learning at the same time to listen to his own speech. Silent reading, on the other hand, transfers least because its activity gives little or no practice conjointly to the other language activities. From this it follows that oral reading or copying from dictation may have some value in helping to transfer to other language skills; but it is probably true that the reading or study of literature transfers practically none at all to ability to express oneself.

Those who have advocated the linking of composition and literature have expected the transfer to come through grammatical or rhetorical analysis of literary passages. Such analysis yields exactly what is practiced — power of grammatical or rhetorical analysis. But it is extremely improbable if this carries over to influence the style of one's writing, except in those few gifted individuals who can consciously put into practice the principles discovered. Most writing must be learned through directed practice.

Others have advocated the marriage of composition and literature so that literary selections may be used as a subject

for theme writing. Today we are well away from the use of such topics as "Select three persons from *Ivanhoe* and state your opinion of their characters." "Compare Shylock in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice* with Barabas in Marlowe's *Jew of Malta*," "The descriptions in *Ivanhoe* are better than those in the *House of the Seven Gables*," for pupils' writing.

The N. E. A. report on the "Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools"⁴ recognized the danger of this sort of grafting in its statement:

Subjects for compositions should be drawn directly from the pupil's life and experience. To base theme work mainly upon the literature studied leads pupils to think of composition as a purely academic exercise, bearing little relation to life.

There are two possibilities in the correlation of literature and composition that have promise. The one is to consider the literature class exactly in the same light as any other subject in the curriculum — history, science, fine arts, etc.—as a class in which the pupil finds it necessary to express himself in oral and written discussion. In the literature class there is the need for giving book reviews, preparing oral or written reports on the background of a story or essay, providing interesting details of the author's life that help explain the point of view expressed, giving an explanation of difficult passages, entering into a discussion of meanings, moral implications, and so on. All of these *natural* occasions for expression—oral or written—are also occasions for aid from the composition teacher, in exactly the same sense as in other subjects.

The second possibility in the correlation of literature and composition is the comparative method, well exemplified in Luella B. Cook's *Using English*, Book II.⁵ Here literary selections are drawn upon to provide illustrations of rhetorical points. One literary selection

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1917, No. 2.
⁵ Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1932.

More About "Current English Usage"

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THE MONOGRAPH *Current English Usage*, published for the National Council of Teachers of English, has been praised by some persons because they believe it marks a step in the direction of liberalizing the teaching of English. It has been criticized by others because they believe it sets up current usage as the sole criterion for good English. The following discussion of the monograph offers some criticisms based on extravagant claims which are made in the editorial comments and on statistical errors which are apparent in the data.

The foreword represents an interpretation of the findings of the study. Some of the statements that are made in this foreword are not based on the data which are reported in the monograph. For example, on page xvi the author says, "For them [the judges], *farther* and *further* are synonymous [sic], and so are *shall* and *will*." The data do not support the statement concerning *shall* and *will*. On page 114 the sentence "My colleagues and I *shall* be glad to see you" is listed as "established." On the same page "I *will* probably come a little late" is listed as "disputable." These examples indicate that the judges do not consider *shall* and *will* as being synonymous. They indicate that the judges adhere to the rule: Use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third persons to express simple future time.

On page xvii appears the statement, "If two coordinate clauses without a connective are really related in thought

and belong together, these judges are evenly divided as to whether a comma or a semicolon should join [separate] them." On page 22 the critical ratio of the judgments between the use of the comma and the semicolon is 1.38 in favor of the semicolon. The judgments of the book publishers alone give a critical ratio of 5.72 in favor of the semicolon. A critical ratio of 1 represents a chance of 5.3 to 1 that the true difference of opinion is in the same direction as the observed difference, a critical ratio of 2 represents a chance of 43 to 1, and a critical ratio of 3 represents a chance of 740 to 1. Thus, the ratios shown on page 22 do not represent an even division.

Conclusions by the investigators are in some instances inconsistent. For example, on page 12 a critical ratio of 2.74 represents the weight of opinion in favor of the comma as against no punctuation between coordinate clauses of a compound sentence connected by *and*. Here the investigators conclude that the use of the comma is optional. On page 20 the weight of opinion in favor of the semicolon as against the comma before *hence* between coordinate clauses is represented by a critical ratio of 2.51. Here the investigators arrive at the conclusion that "the safe style is probably the semicolon." These conclusions use a critical ratio of 2.74 to represent an optional practice and a smaller critical ratio (2.51) to represent an established practice.

On page 13 the following sentence is given: "I make every possible allowance

for human credulity and passion
 $\overset{2}{()}$ $\overset{22}{(,)}$ $\overset{4}{(;)}$ and I am rarely mistaken
 $\overset{A}{()}$ $\overset{B}{(,)}$ $\overset{C}{(;)}$ in my judgments of the men who apply
 for help." The figures above the parentheses represent the number of judges who require the punctuation indicated in parentheses. The critical ratio between no punctuation and the comma is given as 10.58 in favor of the comma. The critical ratio between the comma and the semicolon is given as 5.38 in favor of the comma. But on page 14 the discussion closes with this statement: "A safe conclusion to draw from these votes is that the comma or the semicolon may be used and that no opprobrium should fall upon anyone who sees fit to use no punctuation at all." This conclusion seems utterly to disregard the data.

The data presented in the monograph are open to serious question as to their statistical reliability. For example, in several places the number of judges to whom Ballot I on current usage was submitted is referred to as 229, whereas the number of judges listed on pages 219-221 is 249. If there were really 249 judges and if the statistical calculations were based on 229 judgments, the findings are worse than worthless. There must have been more than 229 judges, for Appendix F shows more than 229 judgments on some of the items. For example, item 91 shows 242 judgments.

In the statistical tables on pages 18 to 71 the number of book publishers to whom Form II on punctuation was submitted is given as 33, but only 32 publishers are listed in Appendix B. All the statistical tables list the total number of judges, but apparently all judges did not rate every item. For example, in the tables on pages 19, 20, and 21 there are listed only 40 ratings by the 42 newspaper judges. However, it seems that the total number of judges was used in

calculating the critical ratios. In the table on page 20 the critical ratios 1.57 and 2.51 are found by using 42 and 76, respectively, as the number of judgments instead of 40 and 74.

On page 99 Appendix F is mentioned as a "complete ballot of all judges." A part of a paragraph from page 108 is quoted here with the figures taken from Appendix F given in brackets. "This expression is listed here among the established usages on the basis of the way the linguists voted—only 3 [2] of 28 [30] condemning it as illiterate. If all the judges' estimates had been taken into consideration, without weighting on the basis of the greater expertness of one group as against another, this sentence would have been placed among the disputable usages—only the business men, of whom 18 [15] condemned and 5 [4] approved, would place it among expressions clearly illiterate. One hundred and thirty [143] judges altogether approved this; 91 [100] condemned."

On page 102 the statistics given for the use of *you* in "You had to have property to vote, in the eighteenth century," do not agree with those in Appendix F. The investigators report that 75% of the judges (linguists or all the judges?) approved this usage as good colloquial English and that 12% approved it as literary. According to Appendix F 86% of the linguists and 73% of all the judges approved this use of *you* as good colloquial English, and 3% of the linguists and 11% of all the judges approved it as literary.

On page 99 the statement is found, "Items marked *established* have been approved for literary or good colloquial use by at least 75% of the judges [linguists?] and disapproved by not more than 25%." Items 79 and 82 in Appendix F show that only 73% of the linguists rated the usage as good literary or colloquial English. Yet these items are marked "established."

The use of *us* in "If it had been us, we would admit it," is listed as "established." According to Appendix F it was approved as good colloquial English by 73% of the linguists and by 60% of all the judges. Items 101, 102, and 103 are listed as "established," but only 73% of the linguists approved them as good colloquial English and none approved them as literary.

The accuracy of the data in Appendix F is open to question because of inconsistencies in the number of ratings. On pages 220 and 221 are listed the names of 28 linguists for Ballot I and 17 linguists for Ballot II. Appendix F gives the number of linguists rating each item under each category except "3" (technical English). Of the 101 items in Ballot I, 33 are rated by fewer than the 28 linguists. This discrepancy may be accounted for in part by the fact that the ratings under category "3" have been omitted, but this does not account for all the differences. For example, item 5, "The invalid was able *partially to raise* his body," is rated by 15 of the 17 linguists. It does not seem probable that this item was rated as technical by the other two judges. What, then, is the explanation of these and other similar discrepancies?

More serious than the failure of judges to rate, or the failure to report ratings, is the apparent stuffing of the ballot box. On Ballot I, which had 28 lin-

guist judges, 27 items show 29 ratings, 13 show 30 ratings, 9 show 31 ratings, 1 shows 32 ratings, and 3 show 33 ratings. On Ballot II, which had 17 judges, 4 items show 18 ratings, and 1 item shows 19 ratings. How can 28 judges cast 33 ballots or 17 judges cast 19 ballots without stuffing the ballot box?

Many of the items which are listed as "established" would have been listed as "disputable" if all the ratings had been taken into consideration. Why include the judgments of 249 individuals when all the conclusions are based on the judgments of 28 (or fewer) individuals? It seems indefensible to use this procedure in determining what we should teach and what we should not teach when the purpose of the investigation is to determine current usage. Do the ratings of a few linguists represent current practice? Should not teachers, business persons, and other educated persons be consulted?

The danger that lies in this study is the apparent finality of the conclusions. On page xvii the statement is made: "This monograph presents the highest level likely to be operative as an example for our students." The erroneous conclusions and the numerous statistical errors render it of little value as a statement of what should and what should not be taught. Most teachers, however, cannot or will not examine the data in sufficient detail to make their own interpretation.

The Newbery Prize Books*

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AT THE Annual Conference of the American Library Association held in Montreal, in June, 1934, a thirteenth title was added to the list of Newbery Medal books — *Invincible Louisa*, the Story of the Author of Little Women, by Cornelia Meigs, Associate Professor of English at Bryn Mawr College. The annual award of this medal, named for John Newbery, the first publisher of books written primarily for children, is an event important to everyone interested in seeing that children get the best from among the some six hundred new juvenile books published in this country every year.

Cornelia Meigs is the great-granddaughter of Commodore John Rodgers, whose romantic career in the United States Navy is recorded in the pages of history. Miss Meigs was born in Rock Island, Illinois, one hundred years after thirteen-year-old John trudged off alone over the dusty thirty-five mile road from his home at Susquehanna Ferry to Baltimore to discover for himself the marvels of the sea. As a little girl Miss Meigs never tired of hearing about the adventures of her famous ancestor and his children. She was nine years old before she had her first glimpse of the sea, but long before that, while her sisters made up games about Robin Hood and Little John, she spent her time pretending that she was a sailor watching for a pirate's ship, or inventing stories of her own about the sea. As she grew older she studied about the vessels in which her

great grandfather traveled and about those which he fought and captured.

After her graduation from Bryn Mawr in 1908, Miss Meigs taught English for some years in Davenport, Iowa. She soon began to write stories under the pseudonym "Adair Aldon" and quite naturally these tales were about ships and sailors. Since 1908 she has written twenty-one books (including two plays), in addition to leading an active life as a teacher. Although there has naturally been a steady growth in the richness of her writing, all of Miss Meigs' stories show remarkable workmanship. In 1927, her *Trade Wind* won the \$2000 prize (from nearly 400 manuscripts) offered by Little, Brown and Company for the most suitable children's book submitted for publication. This story of David Dennison, the eighteen-year old lad of colonial Massachusetts, who follows his father's example and goes to sea, thrills with adventure from beginning to end. Although written far from the sea, in Iowa, it is no made-to-order story, for Miss Meigs spent from three to four years in its preparation, even laying it aside for a year or so before completing it.

Miss Meigs' pictures create in her young readers a feeling for American history and American background. Whether she be writing, as in *Clearing Weather*, of the courage and honesty of young Nicholas Drury and his adventures in the building, launching, and home-coming of the ship, "Jocasta"; or whether she is telling in *Swift Rivers* of Chris Dahlberg's rise from a penniless lad,

* Prepared under the direction of Miss Elizabeth Briggs, as chairman of the Book Evaluation Committee, Section for Library Work with Children of the American Library Association.

laboring on his uncle's farm, to a successful lumberman in the logging industry of the Middle West, Miss Meigs fills the pages of her books with real people and living and probable situations. She has written for younger children, too, perhaps nowhere more delightfully than in *The Willow Whistle*, a story of pioneer life on the prairies.

Probably no one could have produced a more understanding life of Louisa May Alcott for boys and girls than did Miss Meigs in her *Invincible Louisa*. From the time when the town crier went calling in his great voice, "Lost, a little girl in a pink dress and green morocco shoes," and wee Louisa wandering alone through Boston Common courageously answered in the evening darkness, "That's me," to the very end of her life she was indeed the "Invincible Louisa." A more appealing heroine is impossible to find in fiction. Bravely facing every difficulty, her struggle to success was slow but steady. Humor intermingled with pathos fill the pages of this biography. Perhaps the fact that Miss Meigs has five sisters of her own may account in part for her sympathetic treatment of the four Alcott sisters. It seems most appropriate that the story of the author of *Little Women* should be the first biography and the second book of non-fiction to receive the Newbery Medal.

The Newbery Medal is the gift of Mr. Frederick G. Melcher, founder of Children's Book Week. Since 1922 it has been awarded annually at the Children's Librarians' Section of the American Library Association for the most distinguished book for children written by a citizen or resident of the United States and published for the first time during the preceding year. Not only does it stand as a memorial to the earliest publisher of books for children, thus linking the past with the present, but also it illustrates the great interest that is be-

ing shown in the publication of children's books today.

The thirteen Newbery Medal books are as follows:

1922. *The Story of Mankind* by Hendrik Willem Van Loon. Illustrated by the author. Boni and Liveright.

1923. *The Voyages of Doctor Dolittle* by Hugh Lofting. Illustrated by the author. Frederick A. Stokes.

1924. *The Dark Frigate* by Charles Boardman Hawes. Little, Brown.

1925. *Tales from Silver Lands* by Charles J. Finger. Illustrated by Paul Honoré. Doubleday, Doran.

1926. *Shen of the Sea* by Arthur Bowie Chrisman. Illustrated by Else Hasselriis. E. P. Dutton.

1927. *Smoky, the Cowhorse* by Will James. Illustrated by the author. Charles Scribner's Sons.

1928. *Gay-Neck* by Dhan Gopal Mukerji. Illustrated by Boris Artzybasheff. E. P. Dutton.

1929. *The Trumpeter of Krakow* by Eric P. Kelly. Illustrated by Angela Pruszyńska. Macmillan.

1930. *Hitty* by Rachel Field. Illustrated by Dorothy P. Lathrop. Macmillan.

1931. *The Cat Who Went to Heaven* by Elizabeth Coatsworth. Illustrated by Lynd Ward. Macmillan.

1932. *Waterless Mountain* by Laura Adams Armer. Illustrated by the author and Mr. Armer. Longmans, Green.

1933. *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* by Elizabeth Foreman Lewis. Illustrated by Kurt Wiese. John C. Winston.

1934. *Invincible Louisa* by Cornelia Meigs. Illustrated from photographs. Little, Brown.

The first of these books, *The Story of Mankind* by Van Loon, gives in a single volume the history of the world from the stone age to the end of the World War. Van Loon's work is important because he was the first to real-

ize that the study of history may be made both entertaining and scholarly. Van Loon illustrated the book himself because he knew exactly what he wanted his pictures to say.

Some books need no introduction to children. Such a story is *The Voyages of Doctor Dolittle*. Although Lofting may have received the medal in part because of *The Story of Doctor Dolittle*, published in 1920, the account of the voyages made by nine year-old Tommy Stubbins and the little doctor in an attempt to learn the shellfish language gives much pleasure to children.

In *The Dark Frigate*, Hawes carries the reader back to buccaneering days in England in the time of Cromwell. Kidnapping, piracy, bloody adventure and raging seas fill its pages. In 1924 there was some doubt as to whether *The Dark Frigate* were eligible for the Newbery Medal since Hawes had died suddenly on July 15, 1923. This book is the only one for which the medal has been awarded after the author's death.

There are two volumes of short stories in this group of Newbery Medal books. The first, *Tales from Silver Lands* contains nineteen legends of South America based on Charles Finger's own adventures and on tales told him by the Indians whom he met in his wanderings. These stories as well as those in *Shen of the Sea* adapt themselves well to storytelling. The woodcuts made by Paul Honoré for *Tales From Silver Lands* are among the finest in contemporary illustrating.

Perhaps the most imaginative as well as the most humorous of the Newbery Medal books is *Shen of the Sea*. Chrisman thoroughly enjoyed writing these Chinese stories, in part based on tradition, but largely creations of his own brain. The fascinating silhouettes made by Else Hasselriis doubtless appeal more strongly to adults than to children.

Will James writes of *Smoky*, "I was

born and raised in the cow country. I am a cowboy, and what's put down in these pages is what I've lived, seen and went thru before I ever had any idea that my writing and sketches would ever appear before the public." As a story of a horse *Smoky* is unsurpassed. During his cowboy days James often amused himself by making sketches, particularly of horses, and so it was but natural for him to illustrate his own books. His horses seem to leap from the page and yet James never draws from a model. The cowboy lingo lends much charm to the story. There is little danger of its being imitated by the boys.

Mukerji not only owned forty pigeons, but he talked with trainers of army pigeons and so in *Gay-Neck* he has given us a true picture of the birth, education and training of a carrier pigeon. Although there is too much philosophic teaching in the last part of this book, the average child probably skips over the passages he does not understand without being disturbed by them. The illustrations by Boris Artzybasheff are in the spirit of India. As a beautiful example of modern bookmaking *Gay-Neck* is unexcelled.

The Trumpeter of Krakow by Eric Kelly is an adventure story having as its setting the colorful period of fifteenth century Poland. Mr. Kelly wrote this story while he was a lecturer and student at the University of Krakow in Poland. It is the only Newbery Medal book which was written in a foreign country. Mr. Kelly planned to write a much more authoritative work than *The Trumpeter of Krakow*, but somehow this story of Pan Andrew and his fifteen-year old son Joseph who for a time served as trumpeter of Krakow seemed to write itself. It has as its basis the legend of the young trumpeter of Krakow who centuries ago sounded the Heynal (a trumpet song blown each hour from the four windows of the tower of

The Effect of Phonographic Recording in Improving Children's Speech

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PHONOGRAPHIC recording has been used in teaching and measuring results in speech work, oral reading, dramatics and music, but as yet little has been done with it in the field of conversation. A group of children who are working together in a school situation naturally have many experiences which are of interest to the group as a whole. An opportunity for them to meet together to share such experiences gives rise to a free group conversation period. In recounting their experiences, however, children vary greatly in ability to express ideas interestingly. Some set forth their ideas clearly and vividly centering them around a specific incident, while others seem to have difficulty in visualizing clearly the ideas they wish to express and in telling them directly.

This report summarizes a controlled study that was carried out over a period of a month with two fourth grade groups to determine the effectiveness of phonographic recording in the improvement of certain mechanical elements in children's use of English. The data contrasts the progress made when sound records were made by children and used by them as a basis of correction, with the progress made when children were given oral direction by the teacher.

The two groups of children had had similar experience in free group conversation prior to the study, and their recordings included such stories or incidents as they were accustomed to tell in their conversation period. During the five weeks' experiment both groups were taught by the same teacher. Both groups

made beginning and end records and were given equal opportunity to talk between their first and last recordings. The first group, called the Control Group, heard none of their records. The second group, called the Practice Group, made three intervening records between the first and the last or an average of a record a week. They heard all of their own records and discussed them.

The analysis of the results shows that the children who made and discussed records improved more than those to whom the teacher gave oral corrections: in phrasing ideas, in indicating sentences by voice inflection, in avoiding unnecessary words and repetitions, in keeping a consistent point of view in the telling, in eliminating multiple starts, and in avoiding the use of *and* and *well* as initial words in sentences.

The following conversations are selected from the records to show different levels in talking ability. The sample records are arranged in an ascending scale from indefinite, uncertain telling to a definite, direct account.

Tentative Scale Showing Different Qualities of Talking

Level 1

This summer I went to Switzerland 'n we climbed up a lot of mountains 'n *'n we went bicycle riding 'n—† 'n swimming 'n.
(Pointless, indefinite, uninteresting.)

Level 2

Well I don't know when it was, but I.
— I think it was the day after yesterday,
but anyway — my brother had this book

* Lengthened spacing between words indicates incorrect phrasing.

† Dashes indicate long pauses.

and it had about, I don't know just what it was about. 'n it had a lot of things in it 'n he found how the earth, what makes the earthquakes 'n it said on the other, on the page it said, "Why not make your own earthquakes?" So we decided to and we had to take a lot of books and put 'em, I don't know *how* many books under it 'n then take one book and we had to put a lot of — o-oh toys up on top 'n 'n to represent villages 'n people 'n cars 'n everything like that — and — uh so he, he knocked a book under and it all fell down.

(Indefinite, repeats, shifts point of view, unfinished ideas.)

Level 3

The other day I was going down for a paper 'n I met a little kitty on the way. And she, and I played with her for a while and I had a flower and she'd take the — flower in her paws and she'd take, and she'd run her paws right through it and then she'd sit down and we'd go ahead of her then she'd jump up and run after us and then she'd sit down again and pretend not to see us and then she'd jump up and run after us again.

(Growth toward definiteness; lacks sentence sense, monotonous expression.)

Level 4

I Want My Milk

My father has a friend in Pennsylvania. They have a cat. She is fourteen years old. One night we slept over there. In the morning the cat was looking for her milk. Mrs. Ruthers said that the cat said, "I want my milk!"

(Definite; not a good choice of interesting details.)

Level 5

A Shower Bath for Hot Weather

One Saturday we went to New York to my aunt's house for lunch. When we got there my sister wanted to go to Central Park. They live right near Central Park. When we got there we went into the bird house. They were making a lot of noise so we had to go out again because my sister didn't like them. Then we saw a great big polar bear and they had a great big shower coming down from the top and my mother said, "It must be for hot weather."

(Definitely told, moves directly forward, interesting.)

Samples of Difficulties and Statistical Data

Incorrect phrasing or the habit of breaking ideas at at any accidental place rather than in thought groups is illustrated in the following transcription:

This summer I went fishing. 'N my father 'n he caught a great big fish 'n it was a great big weak fish it weighed about two pounds. He thought he was getting a whale about. 'N once the, the next day he went fishing but I didn't go. . . .

In the Control Group 10 of the 23 children made a total of 27 phrasing errors in the initial recording and 11 of them made a total of 16 errors in the final test. The Practice Group in the initial recording showed 8 of the 21 children making a total of 15 phrasing errors, and in their final recording 2 of them made a total of 3 errors.

Long pauses occurred when children forgot what they wished to say or when their talking rate exceeded their ability to keep their thoughts in organized, expressible form.

Saturday Kathleen Driscoll came over — and we decided to climb a tree. So we went up the tree and Kathlen and I got ah, um, all tangled up . . . and then I got stuck and — then Kathleen — Kathleen had to uh, eh, change and try to get ah, me out . . .

The Control Group reduced their number of long pauses from 21 in the initial recording to 14 in the final. The Practice Group showed a low initial total of 6 long pauses and did not change the total in their final record.

Lack of sentence sense or the tendency to talk in continuous sentences was an outstanding difficulty. In the following story the child indicated by voice inflection but two of the fourteen apparent grammatical sentences.

One day Frank and I, we, he, didn't know what, what to do and so we thought we'd make a canoe and have a little fun in that. So we, we found an old log and hollowed it out with a stone and then, and then got in it 'nd and we played that we were going over to all different foreign countries

and we had lots of fun in it and then we'd stop it 'n anchor it and then we'd go in little places and pl. play we had a ship, shipwreck and then we had lots of fun in it and it was one day he got turned over and he was laying right in the, in the thing there, in the dug out part of it and he, he didn't know how to get out and the thing was wiggling and then I had to turn it over and then one day we split in two and that was all.

In the first recording the Control Group indicated 39% of the sentences and the Practice Group indicated 41%. In the final recording the group not hearing their records indicated 55% of their sentences and the group who heard their own records indicated 84%.

Unnecessary words included a large per cent of superfluous words, repeated words, part words, "ands" and vocalizations. In the following story 20% of the words is unnecessary.

We had company one Sunday quite a while ago 'n there was this big boy he was about 14 years old and he was very fat. 'N we were playing Hide-and-Seek for a while and, and we, and he, h. I don't know and my sister was it. And he went into the kitchen and he didn't have any place to hide. 'N at last, 'n my sister came around and so he got in the broom closet and he was so fat and when, when my sister found him he, he couldn't get out 'n, 'n he said, "Help, help. I'm stuck!" 'N my father had to come and pull him out.

The Control Group reduced the total number of unnecessary words used from 20% to 13% and the Practice Group from 18% to 5%.

Repetition of words and phrases was a common difficulty throughout the telling.

When I went to the rodeo this year there uh, puh, part of the things I saw was uh, a st, a man came out uh, that little place and a steer and came a little ahead of him and they had to catch up to 'em and, and uh get on the steer's neck and twist their neck until they got him down and then they had to tie their two back legs and one of their front legs together and some of them and some of these men they timed, they timed and, and it, it was goo, good. I think the fastest man made

it in fourteen seconds and a three-fifths and, and uh, then and then there was uh after they uh unloosened the steers they, they, they uh, there was a clown rode on a steer's back.

The Control Group reduced their number of repetitions from 63 to 25, the Practice Group from 58 to 10.

Changes in point of view in the telling were indicative of the child's inability to carry an idea through to a completed form once he had started to express it in a certain way. It may indicate insufficient attention to his ideas while he is talking.

Uh. Ah. Well I Stuck On

Well yesterday my friend he was going to be for, he was for Roosevelt. 'N he was up at uh, thi uh, at my other friend's house. And they were wan, and they uh he, they asked him who he was for 'n he said "Roosevelt." And they all piled on they had a big fight. And wu-u a boy there about fourteen 'n one twelve, 'n a few more and uh, they kept on but he wouldn't give up he stuck on for Roosevelt.

The Control Group showed no significant gain in keeping a consistent point of view throughout the tellings. The number of changes in point of view for their initial and final recordings were 30 and 28 respectively, while the Practice Group had 45 errors in the first recording reduced to 12 in the final.

Multiple starts at the beginning of sentences show uncertainty of ideas.

. . . My father thought if they, if he'd roll down the hill it would, the motor would start going. He rolled it down the hill but the motor did not start going. So, he had it stopped, it stopped at the bottom of the hill . . .

Each group showed a total of 27 multiple starts at the beginning of sentences at the initial recording. The Control Group reduced to 18 and the Practice Group to 6.

And and well were frequently used as initial words in sentences. In the first recording of the Control Group, *and* was the introductory word in 121 sentences. In the final record it was used

88 times. The Practice Group reduced initial *and* from 148 to 25. Well occurred 8 times in the Control Group and 3 times in the Practice Group at the outset and once only in each of their final recordings.

Definiteness in telling is set forth by contrast in the two following samples:

Bruce Has Poison Ivy

Well, the boy that was over to my house a couple uh days ago well he has poison real bad. 'N we went down to the club 'nd he has his hands all bandaged up. We went down to the shore and we saw the pier 'nd the water had knocked it off 'n all the boards were up on the land.

A Mouse in the Hamper

We caught a mouse in the hamper, just the wrong place. I could har, hardly go to school I was so excited. When I came home I said, "Where's the mouse?" The maid said, "Mugs killed him." Mugs is our dog. He kicked over the hamper and my sister sat up on the stove; my mother waited with the broom by the radiator because there was a hole some place around the radiator. But then a mouse ran up down into the cellar so he could get away and my, my dog got him on the first pounce.

Initial and Final Records Contrasted

The following records include the initial and final recordings of two pupils in the Practice Group and show the improvement made during the month.

Pupil 1. Initial Record

My brother was sick in bed with the croup. And last night he was talking in his sleep. And he said, "Oh, boy, mine turned out to be an elephant." And it was his birthday about three days ago and he got uh, a book and it was called, "Can You Answer, Can You Draw It?" 'N there were these numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 'n you drew from one to another and he, and that night he drew a big elephant in his sleep. 'N when he woke up in the morning he found that he had scribbled six pages in his book.

(Begins sentences with *and*.)

Pupil 1. Final Record

What a Mystery!

Yesterday my father and mother went to a football game in New York. They came back

at half past one in the morning. At one o'clock a car stopped and parked right opposite our house. Two men and a lady got out in a great hurry. One of the ladies was dressed in a cape, the other was dressed in a black and the man was dressed very queerly. Our chauffeur noticed them as they got out of the car and he was locking the house. In the morning my father went out and looked at the car. He came in and called up the police. A few minutes later a policeman came up on a motorcycle and looked all over the car. And then about 12 o'clock (end of record)

(Definite, interesting, satisfactory, attainment.)

Pupil 2. Initial Record

The other night I was in bed, 'n I, I was jest about to go to sleep when I heard a bang. 'N I, there were these two windows, 'n 'n I, 'n my bed's facing 'em, 'n I looked out 'n there were these great big lights, they were going off and on. 'N nearly every night when I, when I go I see 'em but they always stay, stay on. 'N the other night, the other night they were going on and off and I didn't know what they were so I went to the window 'n I couldn't see anything, all they were doing was going off and on and then they went altogether off. 'N, 'n, 'n then they was (mumbling) 'n I woke up. 'N then another night, I don't know when it was, they went on but I went outside 'n that morning they said the lightning hit another house. It looked like a castle 'n the lights were going off and on it 'n every time they go on they (end of record)

(Indefinite, repetitions, unnecessary words, frequent vocalizations.)

Pupil 2. Final Record

Fifteen Years Ago

When we went to Atlantic City for the vacation — Daddy and Marco and I went out for a walk on the broadwalk. When we got pretty far down we saw a great big black, thing on the beach. 'Nd I asked Daddy if we could go down there and he said, "All right." So we went down there and there was uh, a boat and it was, and he showed us this canoe and all the stuff. Inside it was all shipwrecked. And we, there was a man catching crabs and we asked him how long ago that boat was shipwrecked and he said, "Fifteen years ago."

(Direct telling, slight repetition, some vocalization.)

Summary of the Study

The two groups of children were approximately equal in errors they made on the first records. The errors for each child were counted covering incorrect phrasing, long pauses, number of sentences not indicated, unnecessary words, repetitions of words and phrases, changes in point of view, multiple starts, and *and well* as initial words and errors in grammar. The comparison of the two groups is as follows:

NUMBER OF ERRORS MADE ON THE
FIRST RECORDS

Control Group	Practice Group
23 children	21 children
Mean 38.04	Mean 38.33
24.4	21.0

A count of the errors was also made in the same categories on the last records. The average gains for the groups are as follows:

GAINS AS SHOWN BY ERRORS ON THE
LAST RECORDS

Control Group	Practice Group
23 children	21 children
Mean gain 15	Mean gain 31.2
22.3	20.4
4.66	4.45

The average child in the group making and discussing records decreased his errors by 31 while the child who did not hear his records and received only oral suggestions from the teacher decreased his errors by only 15.

The significance of the differences in these gains gives an experimental coefficient¹ of .90, or a chance of about 160 to 1 that repeated under the same condi-

tions the results would again favor the group that made and discussed their records.

Stated in more general terms the results may be summarized as follows:

1. There is a definite tendency in both groups to shorten talks with an effort toward improvement.
2. Growth in definiteness in telling is more apparent when children center their talks around one incident.
3. Children who hear their records tend more and more to use titles for their talks.
4. More children talk who have an opportunity to make and hear their records.
5. The use of the records favors greater and more rapid growth in the mechanics of expression, such as correct phrasing, speaking in sentences, and omitting unnecessary words, repetitions, changes in point of view, multiple starts, and initial "ands."
6. The use of records favors more rapid growth in directly and progressively telling an incident.
7. Records furnish a vivid means of making a child conscious of needed speech improvement.
8. The records provide an opportunity to analyze exact difficulties and thereby direct efforts toward improvement in oral language.
9. The recording provides an exact record by which improvement may be noted.
10. Making and hearing of records seems definitely to add to the children's enjoyment of oral language.

¹ McCall, William A. *How to Experiment in Education*. p. 155. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930.

A Critical Summary of Selective Research in Elementary English

Discussion of the Second Annual Bulletin of The National Conference on Research in Elementary School English*

Evaluation

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THIRTY-FIVE studies were submitted for final consideration by the committee. At least that many more were eliminated because they exceeded the allotted printing space. A canvass was made to secure researches reported since 1925 in the field of oral and written composition on the elementary school level. In the main, the duplication of Lyman's *Summary of Investigations Relating to Language, Grammar, and Composition* and the 1932 Supplement was avoided.

It is interesting to note that 25 of the studies were sponsored by the departments of education in universities. Five were parts of research programs conducted by public school systems; four problems were investigated by individuals; and one was undertaken by S. A. Leonard and published by The National Council of Teachers of English. No doubt there are many significant investigations not given wide circulation which could be secured by soliciting the co-operation of public school research units. The English, psychology, and speech departments of graduate schools should also be canvassed with more persistence than was possible for your present committee.

Two-thirds of the researches were analyses of the status quo; one-third of them were attempts to modify directly school practices. One of the 35 reported studies was an evaluation of research techniques for the collection of oral English. Twenty-two investigators reported analyses of textbooks and of children's compositions. Twelve of the problems were related to teaching techniques.

*The Bulletin appeared serially in *The Review* from March to June, 1934. It was prepared by Dr. Walter Scribner Guiler and Dr. Emmett Albert Betts. The discussions appearing in this issue will be followed by others in forthcoming numbers.

Table I exhibits the nature and extent of the phases of English encompassed by the summaries.

TABLE I.
ANALYSIS OF THE 35 SUMMARIES

Punctuation	6
Oral Composition	4
Grammar	4
Content Correlation	4
Psychological Aspects	3
Reduction of Errors	3
Letter Writing	2
Usage	2
Sentence Structure	2
Text book Analyses	2
Direct vs. Incidental Teaching	1
Ability Grouping	1
Composition Scales	1
Total	35

A critical appraisal of the research reports indicates other and more fundamental limitations. The following twelve limitations, desirable in some instances, can be grouped under three headings—philosophy and psychology, experimental, and statistical.

1. The educational psychology or philosophy basic to the research project was usually omitted from the report. In some of the studies there was the implication, at least, that a given skill could be adequately studied in isolation. In others, they passively refuted the assumption that language is more than the sum total of identifiable mechanical skills. However, a few of the studies dealt entirely with the translation of psychological principles into actual learning situations.

2. Investigators could well afford to correlate their studies on the superiority of girls over boys with the large number of psychological, physiological, and anatomical investigations of maturation. Baldwin of Iowa, Todd of Brush Foundation in Cleveland, and others have made significant contributions here.

3. Many of the studies are fragmentary, wasteful of energy, and lack integration with a common and fairly uni-directional program. Too

often the materials are not analyzed thoroughly enough, because the study is an isolated master's or doctor's dissertation not fitting into a definite program of research. If relationships between the various language items are important, they should be established by re-appraisals and further analyses of the same data.

There have been few comprehensive studies in English, equivalent to Horn's and Thorndike's in other fields, which afford a basis or departing point for fragmentary and isolated researches. As a result, it is quite difficult, if not impossible, to get a total picture from the mosaic of findings.

4. There is a preponderance of data on the mechanical phases and too little on the more inaccessible: i.e., the imaginative, the creative, and composition patterns. The studies by Lyman, Coleman, Colvin and Meyer, and Garbe meet this limitation.

5. In certain instances, the learning periods were of questionable duration and inadequately controlled. With two exceptions, the permanency of learnings was not investigated. When dealing with narrow functions, such as punctuation situations, it appears that immediate recall has been disproportionately emphasized.

6. Learning was loosely controlled both as to length of experimental period and as to the measurement of achievement. One well-known evaluation of practice exercises, not included among the reported summaries, used only eleven periods for the teaching of twenty-eight punctuation and capitalization rules! For a fair evaluation of a study, the actual number of periods used for teaching experimental groups should be more clearly stated in the research report. W. G. Smith used fourteen weeks for teaching the control of certain verb forms; Pavey's project covered a period of years; Lyman's experiment lasted seven weeks; S. A. Leonard's, four weeks; and Kimmel's, seventeen weeks. The durations of the other studies were not reported. In addition, control groups and equivalent test forms were commonly omitted features.

7. In some cases, the functions selected for investigation were probably too narrow. The possible correlates of punctuation, such as sentence structure and word usage, were not controlled, thereby minimizing the possibility of more nearly conclusive findings. In addition, the investigators found the study of pupil control over specific items difficult because of varied teaching practices.

8. The methods of collecting the oral compositions were of questionable reliability, for

neither accurate nor continuous records were secured. Betzner's procedure was probably adequate for her purpose, but yielded data which would be quite unreliable for further study. The McCarthy research, however, was limited in this respect. Some index to the reliability and validity of research techniques employed should be established.

9. Research workers who analyze text-books and other published materials should report the criteria for their selection. Pooley offered reasonable support for his sampling.

10. In certain instances the situation was over-controlled. The Cesander study was limited to three types of composition, therefore it would be unwise to assume that his findings would hold true for similar studies on other types of compositions written under similar circumstances. He was careful, however, to interpret his data in the light of these necessary limiting conditions. With a greater variety of materials one might well expect that it would be necessary to analyze a greater quantity of material to secure equal reliability. The same limitation could be applied to Coleman's study, but to a lesser degree.

11. Some studies purporting to be of statistical nature did not provide data which met the basic assumptions of the formulae employed. Fitzgerald reported the possibility of "linking" within the communities studied; Bontrager questioned the validity and reliability of his measurements. Brueckner and Cutright used an inadequate number of cases and failed to give the control group needed teaching. Cesander believed his criterion of accuracy was not sufficiently refined; Goldsmith, Kimmel, Leonard, McCarthy, Nixon, Price, and Soffel made inadequate samplings; Spaulding did not establish validity of test items; and Wormley questioned his method of equating groups. In other studies, the teacher factor remained out of control. Too often the research worker neglected to establish reasonable proof that sufficient data were secured. Furthermore, many of the investigators admitted too little supervision in securing the data.

12. Many analyses and measurements in language, as pointed out by Bontrager, do not lend themselves readily to statistical treatment. There is still great need for the development of research techniques peculiar to this field.

In brief, there have been no heavy inroads or conclusive findings, but there have been made significant gains in the development and appraisal of research techniques and modes of attacking the general problem. From it all there is being de-

veloped a guiding philosophy. With a poor philosophy and questionable techniques, the more accurate our readings and observations, the farther we are from the truth. It is my earnest hope that our conference will be a clearing house where we can exchange ideas, thereby achieving a needed type of integration.

Evaluation

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I HAVE examined the summaries of the selected pieces of research in elementary school English with considerable interest. I have tried to keep in mind the task of pointing out large gaps in available information, of selecting those investigations which seem to me to contribute most to the study of problems in language, and of selecting those studies which point the way to needed further research.

It seems to me that this group of investigations may be criticized at several points. In the first place, it is obvious that practically no attention has been directed at a study of the more functional aspects of oral and written composition. There is not much help for the teacher who is confronted with the task of teaching children to do the types of writing and speaking they should do. In my opinion too large a proportion of the research has been concerned exclusively with the mechanics of language. This is easily understood when one considers their relative concreteness. Furthermore, research in the mechanical items may lead to a consciousness of problems in functional aspects.

Second, it seems to me that at least twenty of the investigations are premature; in other words, they make use of invalid sources of data. For example, some of the studies of children's usage, and other investigations which attempted to discover instructional problems of various types by analyzing children's writing, used relatively unimportant types of composition as the source of data. All such studies should be carried on after a functional course of study is in operation, or in those cases where children are writing and speaking types of things which it is most important for them to write and speak.

Third, there are not enough investigations such as those by Cesander, Nixon, Laughlin, Goldsmith, Stadlander, Smith, Pavey, and Mc-

Carthy in which attempts are made to study pupil usage and development in given language abilities. It is most important that such studies be carried out in order to improve the actual teaching performance. We must discover when children can learn what we have to teach.

Fourth, there are too few investigations concerning the relation between language and reading. It is possible that many of our reading problems cannot be solved until we learn much more than we know now concerning the development of language ability in children.

Fifth, there is not enough attention paid to the study of mental processes in language. It is my opinion that the answers to many of our language problems may lie in the study of "thinking" abilities rather than in the study of the mechanics. It may be that the improvement of language ability lies no more in studying the mechanics of expression than the improvement of reading ability lies in the study of eye movements. It is possible, also, that the mechanics of language may be improved when we do what we may need to do about the "thinking" abilities. The study by White represents a beginning on one type of problem in this field.

Sixth, there are not enough investigations concerned with possible relations of other school work to the language program.

Seventh, some of the studies attempted to cover too much ground.

Eighth, so far as the elementary school's problems are concerned, too much emphasis is given to investigations of problems at the junior high school level. More than one-third of the studies deal exclusively with secondary school matters. Such research is important, but I should expect information gathered at the elementary school level to be much more valuable to the secondary school than vice versa.

Ninth, it is perfectly obvious that most of the very few experimental studies reported were inadequately controlled or carried on with inadequate samplings.

Tenth, some of the studies of grade placement and method are premature in the sense that they were carried on before we know what is to be graded and taught. The curriculum problem must be solved first, else such studies are quite likely to be futile.

In my thinking the three investigations making the greatest contributions are those by Betts, Leonard, and Bontrager. The investigation by Betts has not only shown the probable invalidity of most previous studies of the errors made by

children in oral expression, but it has also set up a valid tool for further research. To me, this contribution is fundamental. The Leonard study has not only made a satisfactory beginning in determining the curriculum in word usage in terms of a workable criterion, but it has also set up a procedure which should be applied to the study of other language items. One should insert the statement at this point, however, that the criterion used by Leonard may need modification. The investigation of Bontrager points out the necessity of rather specific teaching instead of placing dependence upon rules. Similar studies should be made in connection with other language items.

The investigations which seem to me best to point out the need for further research of a most important type are those by Cesander, White, Stadlander, Nixon, Laughlin, Goldsmith, and Smith. The study by Cesander represents one important type of research which must be carried on in order to determine adequate grade placement. Similar studies should be carried on in regard to various language items in addition to punctuation. It must be remembered, however, that such research should utilize only all the

different kinds of writing in which children should engage under the direction of a sensible course of study. White's study of multiple meanings of words used by children represents a beginning of the study of one element in the thinking that lies behind overt expression. Other studies attacking similar problems should be made. The remaining six investigations represent beginnings in the study of the growth of language ability in children at various grade and age levels. Their kind should be multiplied.

May I close by saying that I know of no field in which there is greater lack of objective data and in which there is a greater need for important research than in language. To me, the work of Dr. Greene and his graduate students at Iowa should be highly commended. I know of no group anywhere that is taking such a productive interest in the careful study of elementary school language. I wish it were possible for the different groups of persons in this country interested in research in elementary school language to plan an extensive research program. Such planning would save duplication, and it would no doubt secure greater intelligence in the work of individuals and in the direction of graduate students.

CORRELATION OF ENGLISH WITH OTHER SUBJECTS

(Continued from page 176)

is not studied exhaustively for all phases of appreciation, but several short stories, plays or essays are suggested for reading and comparison to illustrate vividly the points being made. For instance, on page 316, eight sentences taken from the writings of Stevenson, Kipling, Husband, Gann, Sandburg, Galsworthy, Marshall, France, illustrate the power of vivid description. Analytical study is

followed by attempts on the part of pupils to act on these suggestions in their own writing on topics related to their own experiences and interests. This comparative method in which literary selections serve as models of various rhetorical points should both enhance the appreciation of reading, and should stimulate the power of expression.

THE NEWBERY PRIZE BOOKS

(Continued from page 182)

the Church of Our Lady Mary) even unto death.

In 1930, when Rachel Field received the Newbery Medal for *Hitty*, the story of a real wooden doll carved out of mountain-ash wood by a pedlar in Maine, she was the first woman to be thus honored. Singularly enough, since that time every award has gone to a woman. Even though *Hitty* is a doll, boys will read about her life because it is full of strange and thrilling adventures. Miss Field and the illustrator, Dorothy Lathrop, bought *Hitty* from an antique shop in New York City and together they pieced out her past. No one knew a thing about her and so no one could dispute her memoirs.

It is difficult to say whether the story of the little white cat, *Good Fortune*, or the Japanese legends of Buddha is the more important in *The Cat Who Went to Heaven*. This story is the result of a year's visit in the Orient combined with Elizabeth Coatsworth's love for animals and for religious myths. The full-page illustrations of animals by Lynd Ward, so much in the spirit of the Japanese brush drawing, might almost have been painted by the "poor artist" in the story. Although the drawings please the younger child this book is in no sense a picture-book for small children, rather it is for the child of nine or ten.

Waterless Mountain takes its name from a mountain in the Navaho country of Arizona. "We Navahos call it the Waterless Mountain, because on its top and all of its sides there is no spring; but no one knows what may be in its heart. There are six directions always, east, south, west, north, above and below. Below is the deep heart of things." It is "the deep heart of things" that Mrs. Armer shows us in her story — a story in which humor, tragedy, beauty, poetry and mysticism are intermingled. *Waterless Mountain* gives the child a sympathetic and understanding picture, such as he seldom sees, of the gentle and beauty-loving Indian. The illustrations by Mr. and Mrs. Armer are noteworthy for their beauty and imagination.

While Mrs. Lewis taught in China she learned to know and appreciate the Chinese people. Although *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* is an imaginary character he represents to Mrs. Lewis all that is typical in the Chinese youth of today. As American boys and girls read the adventures of Young Fu during his three years' apprenticeship to a coppersmith in Chungking they cannot help gaining a keener understanding of the boys and girls of China. Kurt Wiese, the illustrator, traveled as a merchant in China for six years. His drawings, therefore, show a definite knowledge of the Chinese people and add to the book's charm.

Editorial

Definition for Expediency

TO TEACH effectively, the teacher must have well in mind the exact nature of the subject to be taught. A prerequisite to the teaching of creative writing is a clear understanding of its meaning. This is the more particularly true since the place of creative writing in the schools for some time now has been advanced almost to the status of a movement. In popular acceptance and recognition, therefore, it has come to possess an excessively broad significance educationally, as does nearly every progressive idea that acquires the sweeping acceleration of an educational movement.

The project method, having attained such acceleration in the early twenties, was broadened in definition to give it a handy inclusiveness. Any one who prided himself on some signal achievement pedagogically would then find the broad definition of the project a convenient cloak to throw around this personal triumph to give it at once conspicuousness and the carriage of distinction. One's pet ideas in methodology, too, could be rediscovered as the very essence of the project, merely by reconstituting the definition of the project in genus and differentia. This having been done, the pet ideas came immediately to have a claim to public esteem not to be dreamed otherwise. Of course, in time the project, which had been a valuable concept, became lost in the confusion of definition and at length, meaningless.

If the meaning of creative writing is to be saved from obliteration, the term cannot too soon be given the definiteness of logical, rather than expedient definition.

In this instance there seems to be little opportunity for confusion in general classification. The term *creative writing* is sufficiently descriptive to help fix it categorically. Creative writing, in terms

of curriculum classification, certainly belongs in the class of English, under the division of written expression or communication.

Further development of the definition requires close discrimination. If under the English curriculum, it is to be treated as a distinct phase of written expression, lines of demarcation must be drawn between creative writing and other forms of written expression as established teaching courses in English. Some explanation of its origin is also necessary. What was the origin of this demand for creativeness in written expression as a subject in the English curriculum? Immediately the whole history of the stultifying effects of academic over-emphasis and rhetorical triteness in the teaching of written English looms up. The demand for this teaching of creative writing is a protest against academic over-emphasis in the English courses in schools, and of mechanical over-emphasis in social and industrial life.

Our definition of creative writing must, therefore, differentiate the teaching of this new classification of written expression from all other classifications with particular reference to the over-academic and the mechanical. It must be a definition that will serve to evolve a course in written expression taught to liberate the spirit, to release the springs of written expression, rather than to stultify and inhibit.

The teaching of creative writing must be concerned with these things not previously taken care of—the opposites of mechanical practicalness and the utilitarian phases of written communication. Above all else, it must sense the ends of originality, personality, where self-serving individuality and the intellectualized aims of written expression were formerly served almost exclusively.

Reviews and Abstracts

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The Story Book of Transportation, The Story Book of Food, The Story Book of Clothes, and The Story Book of Houses. By Maud and Miska Petersham. Illustrated by the authors. The John C. Winston Company, 1933. 60c each.

This is a series of story books, fascinatingly written to delight even the youngest reader. The language is simple and, since every page in each of the books contains a charming illustration, frequently done in as many as five colors, the book will hold the interest of the child from beginning to end.

The story book of houses describes the early dwellings of individuals, including trees, tents, boats, log cabins, etc., all of which are contrasted with the home of today. The story book of clothes indicates how people, in ancient times and today, prepare their clothes. The story book of food and the story book of transportation show the progress made in the preparation of food and in transporting man from one place to another. In these days when so much emphasis is being given to the social aspects of education, these books will be of great value in the lower grades.

Character Training. By Francis F. Powers. A. S. Barnes, 1932. \$1.00.

Character education is extremely popular today and is being given great prominence in many school systems. In this handy volume, the author has presented an excellent analysis of the problems of teaching character, and it shows the influence of various phases of the school system on character. The relationships of extra-curricular activities, methods of teaching, the curriculum, and mental hygiene to the development of character have been very clearly set forth. The final chapter of the handbook contains a description of a practical program of character education.

Man's Long Climb. By Marion Lansing. Illustrated. Little, Brown, 1933. \$1.75.

The works of H. G. Wells and Hendrik Van Loon have given great impetus to a type

of literature which is highly instructive. The present book is of this kind, designed especially for the child who asks numbers of questions. The many things with which civilized man is surrounded are taken for granted by the adult, but the whys and wherefores are seriously questioned by the child. In this book, children will find the answers to countless of their queries, the explanations being extremely simple and well illustrated. In addition to the story interest and the pictorial interest of the volume, the book has an unusual educational value. It is admirably suited for members of both sexes in any grade above the second.

The Carpenter's Tool Chest. By Thomas Hibben. Illustrated. J. B. Lippincott, 1933. \$2.00.

The title of this book is a bit misleading, for the volume does not deal with how small things are made by an elementary school child, but it contains a very excellently written history of the development of the various tools used today. Even the most prosaic of the tools at present found in the carpenter's toolbox have had their stories told in an interesting manner by the author, a distinguished architect. Not only does a history of tools present a history of the race but it supplies a basis on which we may anticipate our further development. There is no question but that the child above the third grade will find this book extremely interesting, definitely educational, and excellent preparation for further work in the social sciences.

The Apprentice of Florence. By Anne D. Kyle. Illustrated. Houghton Mifflin, 1933. \$2.00.

Mediaeval Florence, the beautiful city of the Medici, is the scene of this thrilling story of a poor country boy who came to Florence, seeking his father, was plunged into the rich life of the time, with its feuds and feasts, its merchants, artists, and princes, and, after a period of murderous quarrels and hard journeys, he returned to be thrown into prison. In the end, he was released from prison and inherited a fortune. Columbus, as a boy, comes into

the story, thus adding an interesting touch for those who are familiar with the story of the discovery of America.

I do not recommend the book for boys less than fourteen years of age.

Daily-Life Language Series. By R. L. Lyman and others. Ginn, 1934. Introductory Book, 75c. Book I, 80c. Book II, 84c. Book III, 96c.

In this particular series, which is designed to include grades two through eight, very excellent material has been prepared for correlating language study, reading, penmanship, and general information.

Certain of the outstanding features of the series are the unit organization, the cumulative instruction (which carries on from grade to grade, the work started while the child is still young), and the special provision for individualization. Since composition work is made to include letter writing, class discussion, story telling, and other forms of oral and written composition, it is expected that some work of this kind will be indulged in every day. A variety of drills of different types, covering all aspects of English and placing primary responsibility for appraising his own work upon the individual pupil, an abundant supply of visual aids, and the well-organized testing program will make this book extremely easy to use.

A Norwegian Farm. By Marie Hamsun. Illustrated. J. B. Lippincott, 1933. \$2.00.

So few of the stories of other lands available for reading in the lower grades have to do with the country of Norway that this is

a delightful change from the ordinary diet. The story of the life, adventure, fun, and pranks of two Norwegian boys and two Norwegian girls, ranging in ages from five to eleven years, has been excellently portrayed. Into the story of the antics of the children there is woven a tale of many of their pets—cows, a goat, and a pig. The children spend much of their time playing Indian, although during certain seasons of the year they take the place of herd boys, and hunt and fish and do all the things which country children love. It is a clean story of country life, told with humorous understanding.

This book is suitable for children above the third grade.

The Winged Girl of Knossos. By Erick Berry. Illustrated by the author. D. Appleton-Century, 1933. \$2.00.

Every child in the elementary grades is familiar with certain of the Homeric legends of ancient Crete. Against this background of mythology and adventure, the author has woven a delightful story about a live, blue-eyed, tom-boy daughter of a famous man in Crete. She is her father's companion in his experiments with flying gliders. The political jealousy of some of those near the throne caused Inas and her father to flee the wrath of the king. After a series of adventures, in which Inas finally uses one of her gliders to escape with her lover, they sail away to a land of happiness and contentment.

The book is well written, and is intensely interesting to children between the ages of nine and fifteen years.

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